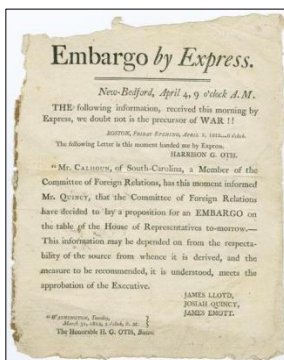


Chesapeake-Leopard Affair

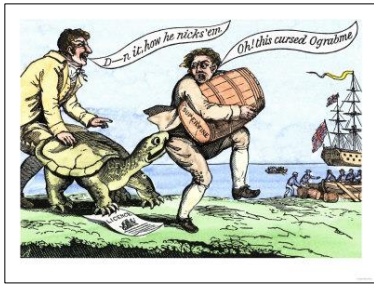
The *Chesapeake–Leopard* Affair was a naval engagement that occurred off the coast of [Norfolk, Virginia](#), on June 22, 1807, between the British warship [HMS *Leopard*](#) and American frigate [USS *Chesapeake*](#), when the crew of the *Leopard* pursued, attacked and boarded the American frigate looking for deserters from the British Navy. The *Chesapeake* was caught off guard and in a state of unpreparedness and after a short battle involving broadsides from the *Leopard*, her commander [James Barron](#) surrendered his vessel to the British after firing only one shot. Four crew members were removed from the American vessel and were tried for desertion, one of whom was hanged. The *Chesapeake* was allowed to return home where James Barron was [court martialed](#) and suspended from command. This event raised tensions between the two countries and, while possibly not a direct cause, can be seen as one of the events leading up to the [War of 1812](#). Indeed, many Americans demanded war following the incident, but President Jefferson initially turned to diplomacy and economic pressure in the form of the ill-fated [Embargo Act of 1807](#).



Orders in Council (1807)

The Orders in Council were a series of laws made by the United Kingdom in the course of the [wars with Napoleonic France](#) which instituted its policy of [commercial warfare](#). The term “Orders in Council” is also used collectively to refer to the group of such decrees in the late-18th and early-19th centuries which restricted neutral trade and enforced a naval blockade of [Napoleonic France](#) and its allies. The Orders in Council are important for the role they played in shaping the British war effort against France, but they are also significant for the strained relations—and sometimes military conflict—they caused between the United Kingdom and neutral countries (like the United States), whose trade was affected by them.

In the Atlantic, the Orders in Council were one of the main sources of tension between the United Kingdom and the United States which led to the [War of 1812](#). In total, the collective “Orders in Council” refers to more than a dozen sets of blockade decrees in the years 1783, 1793, 1794, 1798, 1799, 1803–1809, 1811, and 1812; in practice, it is most often associated strictly with the decrees of 7 January 1807, 11 November 1807, and 26 April 1809 which were most inflammatory to the Americans. The Order in Council of 23 June 1812, in an attempt at reconciliation with the Americans, repealed those three decrees, but two days later as the news was still crossing the ocean, the United States declared war on the British.



Embargo Act (1807)

The Embargo Act of 1807 was a general [embargo](#) enacted by the United States Congress against Great Britain and France during the [Napoleonic Wars](#). The embargo was imposed in response to violations of U.S. [neutrality](#), in which American [merchantmen](#) and their cargo were seized as contraband of war by the European navies. The British Royal Navy, in particular, resorted to [impressment](#), forcing thousands of American seamen into service on their warships. Great Britain and France, engaged in a life or death struggle for control of Europe, argued that the plunder of U.S. shipping was necessary for their survival. The deliberate diplomatic insults and presumptuous official orders issued in support of these depredations by European powers were widely recognized as grounds for a U.S. declaration of war.

The embargo was ineffective, and undermined national unity in the U.S., provoking bitter protests, especially in New England commercial centers. The embargo had the effect of undermining American citizen's faith that their government could execute its own laws fairly; and convinced America's enemies that her republican form of government was inept and ineffectual. At the end of 15 months, the embargo was revoked on March 1, 1809, in the last days of Jefferson's presidency.



Non-Intercourse Act (1809)

In the last four days of President [Thomas Jefferson's presidency](#), the [United States Congress](#) replaced the [Embargo Act of 1807](#) with the almost unenforceable Non-Intercourse Act of March 1809. This Act lifted all embargoes on [American](#) shipping except for those bound for [British](#) or [French](#) ports. The purpose was to damage the economies of the United Kingdom and France. Like the previous law, the Embargo Act, it was mostly ineffective, and contributed to the coming of the [War of 1812](#). In addition, it seriously damaged the economy of the United States. The Non-Intercourse Act was followed by [Macon's Bill Number 2](#). Despite hurting the economy as a whole, the bill did help America begin to industrialize as no British manufactured goods could be imported and had to be instead produced domestically. Additionally, Thomas Jefferson also created neutrality rights which posed the opportunity, that if British or French ships were to stop [impressment](#) of U.S. ships, they would be reopen to trade with the United States.



Tecumseh's War

Tecumseh's War or Tecumseh's Rebellion are terms used to describe a conflict in the [Old Northwest](#) between the [United States](#) and an [American Indian confederacy](#) led by the [Shawnee](#) leader [Tecumseh](#). Although the war is often considered to have climaxed with [William Henry Harrison's](#) victory at the [Battle of Tippecanoe](#) in 1811, Tecumseh's War essentially continued into the [War of 1812](#) and is frequently considered a part of that larger struggle. Tecumseh was killed by Americans at the [Battle of the Thames](#) in Canada in 1813 and his confederacy disintegrated. The tribes remaining in the U.S. signed treaties and sold their lands and moved west by the 1830s. In long-term context, historians place Tecumseh's War as the final conflict of the [Sixty Years' War](#) resulting in the European conquest of the [Great Lakes region](#).

Based partially on stories in major newspapers about the conflict, public outrage quickly grew and many Americans blamed the [British](#) for inciting the tribes to violence and supplying them with firearms. [Andrew Jackson](#) was among the forefront of men calling for war, claiming that Indians were "excited by secret British agents."^[18] Acting on popular

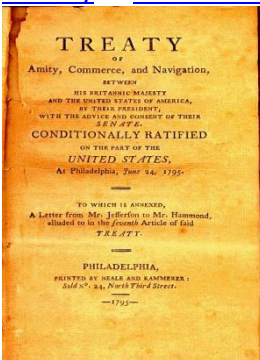
sentiment, Congress passed resolutions condemning the British for interfering in American domestic affairs.



War Hawks

The term originated with a historical group known as the War Hawks, consisting of [Democratic-Republicans](#) and were primarily from [southern](#) and [western states](#). The War Hawks supported going to war against Britain for reasons related to the interference of the [Royal Navy](#) in American shipping, which the War Hawks believed hurt the American economy and injured American prestige. War Hawks from the western states also believed that the British were instigating [American Indians](#) on the [frontier](#) to attack American settlements, and so the War Hawks called for an invasion of [British Canada](#) to punish the British and end this threat. The older members of the Party tried to defeat the War Hawks movement. They felt the United States was not prepared for war.

The term “War Hawk” was coined by the prominent [Virginia](#) Congressman [John Randolph of Roanoke](#), a strong opponent of entry into the war. There was, therefore, never any “official” roster of War Hawks. However, most historians use the term to describe about a dozen members of the Twelfth Congress. The leader of this group was [Speaker of the House Henry Clay](#) of Kentucky. [John C. Calhoun](#) of [South Carolina](#) was another notable War Hawk. Men traditionally identified as War Hawks included [Richard Mentor Johnson](#) of [Kentucky](#), [William Lowndes](#) of [South Carolina](#), [Langdon Cheves](#) of [South Carolina](#), [Felix Grundy](#) of [Tennessee](#), and [William W. Bibb](#) of [Georgia](#).



Monroe-Pinkney Treaty

The Monroe–Pinkney Treaty of 1806 was a treaty drawn up by diplomats of the [United States](#) and [Britain](#) as a renewal of the [Jay Treaty](#) of 1795. It was rejected by President

[Thomas Jefferson](#) and never took effect. The treaty was negotiated by minister to England [James Monroe](#) and his associate [William Pinkney](#) on behalf of the administration of President [Thomas Jefferson](#).

For the Americans, the goal of the treaty was to make the British abandon the practice of [impressing](#) sailors from American ships, as well as to address the neutral trading rights of American vessels in the ongoing [Napoleonic Wars](#), among other commercial concerns. However, the British were short of manpower for the [Royal Navy](#), and believed that numerous British deserters were serving on American ships. In the desperate war against Napoleon, the British believed that they could not afford to abandon impressment: offending the Americans was seen as a much lesser evil than losing to Napoleon. Therefore, no concessions on the issue of impressment were made.

The negotiations were begun on 27 August 1806, and the treaty was signed on 31 December 1806. President Jefferson received the treaty in March 1807, but was disappointed and refused to submit it to the Senate for ratification. This failure to resolve differences over the issue of impressment and neutral trading rights led to increasing tensions between the United States and the United Kingdom.



Little Belt Affair

The *Little Belt* Affair was a [naval](#) battle on the night of 16 May 1811. It involved the [United States frigate USS President](#) and the [British HMS Little Belt](#), a [sloop-of-war](#). The incident took place off the [North Carolina](#) coast. *President* sustained only one injury; *Little Belt* took nine deaths during the battle and 23 injuries, and the sloop was badly damaged in the attack. Two of the wounded Britons died the following day. On the morning of 17 May, American [Lieutenant](#) John Creighton went to *Little Belt* to lament the “unfortunate affair” and to offer space at any of the “Ports of the United States”, which Bingham declined. When the captain asked why *President* had attacked his much smaller ship, Creighton claimed that it was because *Little Belt* had provoked the action. Bingham staunchly denied the account.

Creighton returned to his ship, and *President* and *Little Belt* parted ways. *President* sailed to New York City, and *Little Belt* went to [Halifax, Nova Scotia](#) under escort by [HMS Goree](#). The two nations continued to argue about how the battle began for several months. Rodgers claimed that he had mistaken the British ship for a larger frigate and was adamant that Bingham had fired first. The [Admiralty](#) expressed their confidence in Bingham; it promoted him to Post-Captain on 7 February 1812.